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INTERNATIONAL CONCILIATION

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I. The National Research Council.

II. The International Organization of Scientific Research.

III. The International Union of Academies and the American Council of Learned Societies.

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It is the aim of the Association for International Conciliation to awaken interest and to seek cooperation in the movement to promote international good will. This movement depends for its ultimate success upon increased international understanding, appreciation, and sympathy. To this end, documents are printed and widely circulated, giving information as to the progress of the movement and as to matters connected therewith, in order that individual citizens, the newspaper press, and organizations of various kinds may have accurate information on these subjects readily available.

The Association endeavors to avoid, as far as possible, contentious questions, and in particular questions relating to the domestic policy of any given nation. Attention is to be fixed rather upon those underlying principles of international law, international conduct, and international organization, which must be agreed upon and enforced by all nations if peaceful civilization is to continue and to be advanced. A list of publications will be found on page 40.

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I

THE NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL

By VERNON KELLOGG

Permanent Secretary of the National Research Council
and Chairman of Its Division of
Educational Relations

The National Research Council is a cooperative organization of the scientific men of America. Its members include, however, not only scientific and technical men but also business men interested in engineering and industry. It is established under the auspices of the National Academy of Sciences and enjoys the cooperation of most of the major scientific and technical societies of the country, its membership being largely composed of appointed representatives of forty or more of these societies. The Council was organized in 1916 to coordinate the research facilities of the country for work on war problems, and in 1918, by executive order of the President of the United States, it was reorganized as a permanent body. Its essential purpose is the promotion of scientific research and of the application and dissemination of scientific knowledge for the benefit of the national strength and well-being.

In the character of its organization and support it differs materially from other similarly-named organizations which have been established in recent years in several other countries, notably England, Canada, Australia, Japan, and Italy. These organizations are

all government-supported and to some extent government-controlled. The American National Research Council, although partly supported during the war period by the government and primarily devoted at that time to activities of direct assistance to the government, is now entirely supported from other than governmental sources, and is entirely controlled by its own representatively selected membership and democratically chosen officers. The Council expects to maintain a close cooperation with government scientific bureaus and their activities but it is in no sense itself a government bureau.

It is composed of a series of major divisions arranged in two groups. One group comprises seven divisions of science and technology representing, respectively, physics, mathematics, and astronomy; chemistry and chemical technology; biology and agriculture; the medical sciences; psychology and anthropology; geology and geography; and engineering. The other group comprises six divisions of general relations, representing foreign relations, government relations, states relations, educational relations, research extension, and research information. As subordinate or affiliated lesser groups each of these divisions comprises a larger or smaller series of committees, each with its special field or subject of attention. There are certain other committees, administrative and technical, which affiliate directly with the executive board of the Council.

The Council maintains two series of publications, one called *Bulletins*, the other, *Reprints and Circulars*. Its official organ for the publication of the minutes of the meetings of its executive board and interim committee (acting as an executive committee between meetings of the board) and for the publication of

certain papers is the *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*. Its administrative officers are a chairman, three vice-chairmen, a permanent secretary, treasurer, and the chairmen of its various divisions. All of these are elected annually by the executive board except in the cases of the permanent secretary and the treasurer, and of the chairmen of the divisions of science and technology who are elected by the members of these divisions.

The financial support of the administrative work of the Council is assured by a gift of five million dollars recently made by the Carnegie Corporation. Part of this gift is to be devoted to the erection of a suitable building in Washington for the joint use of the Council and the National Academy of Sciences, and the rest is to serve as an endowment for the Council. For the support of the special scientific projects set on foot or fostered by the Council it relies on special gifts obtained from time to time from various sources. The most notable of these gifts so far made has been one of five hundred thousand dollars for the support, during five years, of a group of National Research Fellowships in Physics and Chemistry, administered by a Research Fellowships Board affiliated with the Council. Other considerable gifts for specific purposes have been made by the General Education Board, the Commonwealth Fund, the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, the Southern Pine Association, etc. The funds for the purchase of the land in Washington on which the headquarters building is to be erected were obtained from more than a score of generous private individuals.

So much for the general relations of the Council to the scientific men and societies of the country and for

the skeleton of its organization and its financial support. It will be seen by this outline that the Council is organized to be the direct instrument, democratically controlled, of the scientific men of the country. And it distinctly considers itself as such. Any thought of an attempted domination of research activities in America is utterly foreign to its thought. It looks upon itself as a means of encouraging and further developing American scientific endeavor, and of *liaison* between this endeavor and that of other countries.

As for the general policies of the Council and the methods by which it hopes, in following these policies, to accomplish results of service to science and to the national well-being, limitations of space will prevent any but the briefest attempt at exposition and discussion. These policies are suggested in some degree by the character of the Council's organization: this character of organization, indeed, has been determined primarily by the beliefs of the Council's membership concerning policies and mode of work.

The Council is neither a large operating scientific laboratory, nor a repository of large funds to be given away to scattered scientific workers or institutions. It is rather an organization which, while clearly recognizing the unique value of individual work, hopes especially to help bring together scattered work and workers, and to assist in coordinating, in some measure, scientific attack in America on large problems in any and all lines of scientific activity, especially, perhaps, on those problems which depend for successful solution on the cooperation of several or many workers and laboratories either within the realms of a

single science or representing different realms in which various parts of a single problem may lie. It is particularly intended not to duplicate or in the slightest degree to interfere with worthy work already under way; to such work it only hopes to offer encouragement and support where needed and possible to be given. It hopes to bring to bear on scientific problems the wisdom of numbers where such wisdom is not made unnecessary by the competence of genius. It hopes to help maintain the *morale* of devoted isolated investigators, to stimulate renewed effort among groups willing but halted by obstacles, to educate the managers of great industries, which depend on the applications of science for their success, to a fuller appreciation of the necessity of support by them of fundamental science, and to encourage the interest of universities and colleges in research work and workers so that the inspiration and training of American youth for scientific work may never fall so low as to threaten to interrupt the constantly needed output of well trained and devoted scientific talent in the land.

With any serious interruption in the output of American science and scientific workers the strength of the nation will be immediately threatened. The industries are today seriously draining the universities and the technical bureaus of the government in their eager search for scientific men. This may mean an immediate advantage to the industries, but it means also an immediate injury to the indispensable scientific work of the government and a grave menace to the future of all science in the country, including, necessarily, that required by the industries themselves. It is the obtaining of a supply of scientific men to satisfy

the needs of the industries at the present at the expense of the provision for the future.

The various methods of contributing practical assistance to American science in harmony with the general point of view outlined above, which the Council has so far adopted, include the establishment of special committees of carefully chosen experts for specific scientific subjects or problems urgently needing consideration, who shall plan modes of attack and undertake to find men and means (with the assistance of the general administrative offices of the Council) for carrying out the plan; the bringing together of industrial concerns interested in the development of the scientific basis of their processes and inducing them to support the establishment of special laboratories or institutes devoted to this development under the advice of experts representing the Council; the stimulation of larger industrial organizations, which may be in a situation to maintain their own independent laboratories, to see the advantage of contributing to the support of pure science in the universities and research institutes for the sake of increasing scientific knowledge and scientific personnel on which future progress in applied science absolutely depends; the direct maintenance of university research fellowships; the publication of valuable scientific papers for which there is at present no other suitable prompt means of issuance; the preparation of bibliographies and abstracts of current scientific literature; the setting up of well-considered mechanisms for the collection and distribution of information on current research, university and industrial research laboratories and facilities, research personnel, etc.; and the dissemination through the press and magazines

of popular but authentic scientific news and information for the sake of increasing the public interest in and support of productive scientific work. Still other forms of activities might be listed, but those given adequately illustrate the Council's methods.

It will be seen from this brief account of the character of the organization and activities of the National Research Council that it occupies a position quite different from that of any other national scientific organization in America, or in the world, for that matter, or any governmental scientific bureau. In a democracy like America's there are enjoyed the unquestioned advantages which spring from wide opportunity and the high premium put on individual initiative. In all undertakings in which these two circumstances are crucial we outstrip all competition. But our success in this respect is purchased at a price, a price that we were likely to have paid very highly for in the World War; just as England and France did pay so long as Germany held the advantage of alone having foreseen and prepared for other possible circumstances. Germany had seen the advantage of organized and coordinated scientific work and until the Allies and ourselves had taken a leaf from Germany's book and had, with a haste made desperate by necessity, similarly organized concerted scientific endeavor, the victories went chiefly to Germany's science-backed armies and submarines.

What America needs is not to give up its individual initiative in science but to add to it means for coordination and organization. We need a wider recognition, an increased social evaluation, of the place of scientific research in our national life, and hence a willingness not only to encourage and support individual scientific

effort but also to insure a greatly augmented productivity of all present research agencies and a much more effective coordination of them both with regard to planning and with regard to executing the broad, inclusive scientific investigations which are required for the solution of the problems concerned with the most effective use of our national resources, with the highest production in our agriculture and industry, and with our national health and well-being. In a word we need more, and better, and better-coordinated science for the preservation and development of our national strength. The National Research Council is an organization that hopes to contribute in some degree, however modest, to the meeting of this need.

II

THE INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SCIENTIFIC RESEARCH

By GEORGE ELLERY HALE

Honorary Chairman of the National Research Council, Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, and Member of the Executive Committee of the National Research Council.

The progress of research, and the rapid advance of knowledge along particular lines, have naturally resulted in the highly specialized organization of science of the present day. Two centuries ago the Royal Society of London and the Paris Academy of Sciences could easily embrace the whole range of science, and include in their membership essentially all of the able investigators of England and France. The establishment of the Linnean Society in 1788 marked the beginning of a dispersive movement that has continued ever since. While the multiplication of societies dealing with narrowly limited fields of science is a sign of progress, the complete separation of investigators who might work in cooperation is certainly not desirable. In fact, the increase of specialization, instead of rendering unnecessary organizations dealing with science as a whole, has served to emphasize their extensive possibilities. It may be doubted whether there was ever a time in the history of science when such bodies could render greater service. The

rise of astrophysics and physical chemistry is evidence enough of the advantage of bridging the gaps between diverging branches, and organizations whose function it is to bring together men working in diverse fields, are naturally qualified to contribute in large measure toward this end.

In Dr. Kellogg's account we may see how these principles have been applied in the United States by the formation of the National Research Council a federation of research agencies established under the Congressional charter of the National Academy of Sciences. The purpose of the present statement is to describe how the International Research Council has undertaken to federate many such national councils and thus to assure wide-spread cooperation in research.

The international scientific organizations that existed before the war were of several distinct types. Some devoted their efforts to the establishment of uniform standards of measure, others organized cooperative researches, while the majority held occasional congresses for the personal interchange of views. Many of these international bodies were formed to meet some special need, and they had become so numerous that men of science interested in the larger aspects and relationships of their personal researches were often unable to attend meetings of importance to them. Thus in astronomy independent bodies dealt with the international chart of the heavens, solar observations, Kapteyn's selected areas, time standards, astronomical ephemerides, distribution of astronomical telegrams, minor planets, and other subjects, and there was no appropriate organization to initiate new projects falling outside of certain limited fields. In chemistry five distinct organizations existed, and yet

there was little international cooperation in research. In geophysics separate bodies were concerned with geodesy, meteorology (almost exclusively from the standpoint of official routine), terrestrial magnetism (without real activity), seismology, and other branches of the subject, and there was no means of securing common consideration of major problems embracing several aspects of this extensive science. The International Association of Academies was not sufficiently representative of the countries it included, was without permanent headquarters or adequate funds, had no contact with the great majority of international scientific organizations, and was almost completely inactive between its triennial meetings.

With such considerations in view, the Royal Society called an Inter-Allied Conference on International Scientific Organizations, which opened in London on October 9, 1918. Belgium, Brazil, France, Great Britain, Italy, Japan, Serbia, and the United States were represented by delegates. The first act of the London Conference was to define the attitude of the bodies represented toward the question of future relations with the men of science of the central powers. The declaration unanimously adopted pointed out that after the opening of hostilities men of science were still able to hope for an immediate resumption of scientific relations between enemy countries on the conclusion of peace, in harmony with previous experience. Unfortunately, however, the atrocities committed by Germany and her allies have created a new situation in the present war. The work of international scientific associations, unlike business dealings or formal diplomatic procedure, results from personal meetings between friends, who must act together in genuine

harmony and sincere personal regard. Such personal relations, especially with the men whose families and acquaintances have suffered shameless brutality in the invaded countries, are manifestly impossible at present and they cannot be resumed until Germany and her allies have renounced their former methods and have been readmitted to the concert of civilized nations.

Under the circumstances, the Conference decided to recommend the withdrawal from former international organizations and the formation of new ones, in which nations that had been neutral in the war would be invited to take part. It was recognized, of course, that some of the old associations would doubtless be recognized and continued, and these need not be duplicated. But in other cases, as the illustrations just cited sufficiently indicate, there were important reasons for complete reorganization, notably in astronomy, geophysics, and chemistry. There was also a strong demand for a body with more general functions to carry out the tasks that the International Association of Academies had failed to perform.

A plan for the establishment of an International Research Council, prepared by the Council of the National Academy of Sciences, was presented to the London Conference by the American delegates. This proposed the organization, by the national academy of each of the countries represented, of a National Research Council, so constituted as to be a federation of research agencies. The details of organization were to be left to each country, but the general principle of uniting research interests in a single representative body was approved. The International Research Council would then consist of a federation of these National Research Councils.

A second Inter-Allied Conference was held in Paris under the auspices of the Paris Academy of Sciences from November 26 to November 29, 1918. Delegates were present from the countries represented in London, and also from Poland, Portugal, and Rumania. The International Research Council, proposed in the resolutions adopted in London, was provisionally constituted of the delegates attending the Paris Conference, with the understanding that the various National Research Councils, as soon as formed, would take their place in the federation. An executive committee of five members, representing France, Great Britain, Belgium, Italy, and the United States, was appointed to study in detail the questions presented to the Conference and to undertake other duties, especially those relating to the formation of new international organizations.

Provisional statutes were adopted for an International Astronomical Union and an International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics. Plans for an International Chemical Union were also presented for subsequent consideration and action.

The International Research Council and its associated bodies, the International Astronomical Union, the International Geodetic and Geophysical Union, and the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, were formally inaugurated at the Palais des Académies, Brussels, at a meeting held July 18–28, 1919. Tentative statutes were also adopted for the following bodies, which will be organized as soon as circumstances warrant, and with such modifications as careful consideration may render advisable: International Unions of Mathematics (already in process of organization), Physics, Radio-

telegraphy, Geography, Geology, Biology and Medicine, and Bibliography.

The objects of the International Research Council, as defined at the Brussels meeting, are:

1. To coordinate international activities in the various branches of science and its applications.
2. To encourage the formation of international associations or unions needed to advance science.
3. To guide international scientific activities in fields where no adequate organization exists.
4. To establish relations with the governments represented in the union for the purpose of interesting them in scientific projects.

The General Assembly, consisting of the accredited delegates of the various countries represented in the International Research Council, meets triennially at the permanent headquarters in Brussels. Between meetings the work is conducted by an executive committee, now comprising one representative each from France, Great Britain, Italy, Belgium, and the United States, but soon to be enlarged by the addition of other members. In accordance with the plan presented by the National Academy of Sciences to the London Conference, the United States is represented in the International Research Council by its National Research Council.

The International Astronomical Union unites in a single body those who formerly took part in the work of the International Chart of the Heavens, the International Union for Cooperation in Solar Research, the International Union for the Determination of Time and Longitude, International Conferences on Ephemerides, the centralization of astronomical telegrams, and other groups, formally or informally

constituted, that dealt with international cooperation in astronomy and its applications.

The objects of the Union are to facilitate international cooperation in research, and to advance the study of all branches of astronomy. Each country represented in the Union organizes a National Committee, preferably in conjunction with its National Research Council, for the purpose of aiding and coordinating its astronomical activities, with special reference to the requirements of international cooperation in research. These committees also select the delegates to meetings of the International Union.

Thirty-two international committees, comprising in their membership the leading investigators in the countries represented in the Union, have undertaken to arrange for cooperation in all classes of astronomical research. If it were feasible in the available space to outline the work of some of these committees, and to indicate the advantages that must result from a combined attack on astronomical problems, in which the ablest investigators will utilize the instrumental resources of scores of great observatories in accordance with a general plan of operations, the true possibilities of such united effort would become obvious.

The scope of the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics is no less comprehensive. Its objects are to encourage the study of problems relating to the figure and physics of the earth, to initiate and coordinate investigations requiring the cooperation of several countries, and to facilitate special investigations such as the inter-comparison of instruments. The Union is constituted of six sections, dealing with (1) Geodesy, (2) Seismology, (3) Meteorology, (4) Terrestrial Magnetism and Electricity, (5) Physical

Oceanography, (6) Vulcanology. Each of these sections appoints special international committees, similar to those of the Astronomical Union, to organize cooperative researches in their respective fields. Action has necessarily been delayed in some of the sections, but a preliminary list of projects already initiated by the Section of Terrestrial Magnetism and Electricity will serve to indicate the character of the cooperative work to be undertaken in this branch of the Union. These involve the comparison of the magnetic instruments in use in different countries, the study of atmospheric electricity, investigation of the electric phenomena of the higher atmosphere, the systematic exchange of magnetic curves, and cooperation with the International Astronomical Union in investigating the relationship between solar and terrestrial magnetic and electric phenomena.

The American branch of the International Union of Geodesy and Geophysics was organized by the Division of Physical Sciences of the National Research Council. Out of this has grown the American Geophysical Union, which officially represents the United States in the International Union and retains organic connection with the National Research Council.

The rapid development of chemistry in recent years, and the limitless variety of its applications in the arts, have led to a great advance in the public appreciation of this branch of science. The possibilities of international cooperation in chemical research are at least as great as in astronomy and geophysics, but prior to the war only a beginning had been made in utilizing them. The organization of the International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry, in which the

United States is represented by the Division of Chemistry and Chemical Technology of the National Research Council, provides the means of securing the cooperation of chemists engaged both in fundamental investigations and in industrial research.

The objects of this Union are to provide for permanent cooperation between the chemical societies of the nations represented, to coordinate their scientific and technical procedure, and to contribute to the advancement of chemistry in all of its aspects.

The first task to be undertaken by authority of this Union will be the preparation and publication, under American auspices, of a critical compendium of physical and chemical constants, as part of the contribution of the United States toward an international program of documentation which will be developed as rapidly as possible. The National Research Council, with the support of the American Chemical Society and other national societies, has been requested to organize the editorial board and secure funds for this large project, which will naturally involve considerable expense. This board, while charged with complete responsibility, will conduct the work on an international basis, with the aid of assistant editors and collaborators in the principal nations of the International Union. Other large cooperative projects will be taken up later.

The International Research Council provides the long desired means of coordinating the activities of international scientific bodies, which in the past have almost invariably worked independently—a condition no longer possible if real efficiency is to be expected. Similar confusion has prevailed in each of the participating countries, where no agency has existed to bring

together men engaged in different classes of international research. In the United States this difficulty has been overcome by the organization of the Division of Foreign Relations of the National Research Council. This comprises in its membership the President and Foreign Secretary of the National Academy of Sciences, and the President or other representative of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, the American Philosophical Society, and the American Academy of Arts and Sciences. Other members include an officer of the Department of State, serving as a Vice-Chairman of the Division; the Chairman of the National Research Council and of each of its Divisions, and certain members at large, including Elihu Root and Herbert Hoover. Each important international scientific and technical organization in which the United States takes part is also to be represented in the Division, which acts for the National Research Council in dealings with the International Research Council, promotes cooperation in matters of common interest between the American national committees or other national representatives of international organizations, aids in the initiation of new international unions, keeps the State Department in touch with pending scientific and technical questions in which the Government may be interested, and publishes annual summaries of international activities in science and technology.

If space permitted, it would be interesting to survey the work of other important international organizations, such as the International Electrotechnical Commission, the International Conference on Electrical Units and Standards, and the International Commission of Illumination. This chapter has

necessarily been confined, however, to a sketch of some developments resulting from the war which have led to a new and promising unification of research activities, in harmony with the spirit of the times.

III

THE INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES AND THE AMERICAN COUNCIL OF LEARNED SOCIETIES

By WALDO G. LELAND

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I. THE INTERNATIONAL UNION OF ACADEMIES

The stimulus which the war gave to the organization of research in the fields of pure and applied science has been described in the preceding pages. At first thought the humanistic studies (for the purposes of this article definable as philosophy, philology, archaeology, history, economics, and the political and social sciences), might appear to have been outside the influence, except as their progress was retarded, of the world conflict. Such, however, was far from being the case. In each country scholars in the humanities were called upon to shape and temper that form of public sentiment which we learned to call *morale*, to reorganize old agencies of government for the more efficient performance of their functions, and to develop new agencies to meet new demands. Such activities, however, affected particularly the individual scholar trained in the humanities rather than the organization of research in those fields of learning.

There were, it is true, minor organizations for war purposes in the fields of history, economics, and political science but nothing in any way comparable to the National Research Council. When it came, however, to making preparations for the negotiation of peace the relative status of these studies was materially altered. The elaborate organizations, such as the "House Inquiry" in the United States and the Historical Section in the British Foreign Office, which were developed for the purpose of making an intensive study of the various problems that would come for settlement before the Peace Conference, were composed very largely if not exclusively of humanistic scholars. With the assembling in Paris of the various peace delegations there were brought together large groups of these scholars whose presence furnished the opportunity, as the creation in the preceding fall of the International Research Council offered the inspiration, for the organization of an International Union devoted to the humanities.

The initiative in this movement was taken by the French Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres which in March, 1919, issued an invitation to the principal academies and learned societies of the allied countries to send representatives to a conference to be held in Paris during the month of May. The invitation so admirably sets forth the objects of the proposed conference that it is worth while to quote the first few paragraphs:

> The Royal Society of London and the Academy of Sciences of Paris, taking into consideration on the one hand the fact that international collaboration is indispensable to the progress of the sciences, and on the other hand the fact that, because of the war, the International Association of Academies which had its seat in 1914 in Berlin has been dissolved and it is not at present

possible to reestablish relations with the scholars of the central powers, have deemed it of importance to proceed without delay to the organization of scientific associations among the learned bodies of the allied and associated states. Thus in two conferences held in London in October and in Paris in November, 1918, at which eleven states were represented, there have been organized several associations in the domain of pure and applied science, grouped around a central research council.

To the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres it has seemed that the same scientific and moral considerations should inspire it to take a similar initiative in the domain of archaeology, history, and philology.

The object to be sought for appears to be:

(1) To establish, maintain, and strengthen among the scholars of the allied and associated states corporative and individual relations which shall be sustained, cordial, and efficacious, and which shall, by means of regular correspondence and exchange of communications and by the periodical holding of scientific congresses, make for the advancement of knowledge in the various fields of learning.

(2) To inaugurate, encourage, or direct those works of research and publication which shall be deemed most useful to the advancement of science and most to require and deserve collective effort.

It would appear to be a natural and beneficent result of the victory that has been gained by the common effort if the same principle of trustful, friendly, free, and equal collaboration which has united the allied and associated countries in conflict might now serve as the basis of a scientific entente.

The conference, which was held in May pursuant to the invitation thus worded, was attended by delegates from seven countries: the United States, represented by Professor Charles H. Haskins of Harvard and Professor James T. Shotwell of Columbia, France, Belgium, Italy, Rumania, Greece, and Japan. It drew up a definite project for the establishment of an International Union of Academies, which was to be submitted to the learned societies of the allied and

neutral countries, and called a second conference to meet again in Paris in October for the adoption of the project by duly qualified delegates and for the discussion of any other matters that might come before it. At the second conference, held on October 15–18, eleven countries were represented by delegates and three other countries had announced their intention of becoming members of the new Union. Thus the proposed organization had, at the start, the support of fourteen countries, the seven mentioned above as being represented at the first conference and in addition to them, Great Britain, Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, Spain, Russia, and Poland. Action favorable to joining the Union was expected, but had not yet been taken by the academies of Finland, Czechoslovakia, and Portugal, while Switzerland had a representative sitting informally in the conference for the purpose of securing information respecting the Union, which should be laid before the Swiss societies preliminary to such action as these latter might take. Invitations had been addressed to other countries but evidently had not reached the appropriate bodies in time for a response. The only refusal to join in the conference came from the Swedish Academy of Belles Lettres, History, and Archaeology, which, however, announced its willingness to join the Union "when it shall be possible to invite all countries to participate in it," referring thus to the fact that, for the present, the central powers are not included.

The first and principal task of the conference thus assembled was to perfect the plans drawn up at the first conference for creating an international scientific federation, corresponding in the domain of the humanities to the International Research Council in the

domain of pure and applied science. This was accomplished by organizing a federation bearing the name Union Académique Internationale (International Union of Academies), the object of which was declared to be "cooperation in the advancement of studies by means of collective researches and publications in the fields of the philological, archaeological, historical, moral, political, and social sciences." The visible body of this federation is styled the "Committee of the Union" and consists of the assembled delegates of the participating countries. Each country is entitled to two delegates and to two votes; the delegates are chosen in each country by the national academy or other national body authoritatively representing the humanistic studies, or by a group of such academies, learned bodies, or societies, the composition of which is self-determined. New countries, including, of course, the late enemy states, may be admitted to membership in the Union, upon direct application or upon nomination by three member countries, by a secret vote of three-fourths of all the delegates, which may be taken directly or by correspondence. The assembled delegates elect the officers of the Union, and consider and decide all questions of general interest, such as the admission of new members, the amendment of the statutes, the undertaking of projects of collective research or publication, and the administration of finances. The headquarters of the Union, like those of the International Research Council, are established at Brussels, where, in the Palais des Académies, is located the permanent secretariat or clerical force, and where the delegates must assemble at least once a year in ordinary session. The financial support of the Union is derived from

the annual dues of two thousand francs assessed upon each member country; as the sum thus realized is barely sufficient for the modest expenses of administration it is expected that special funds for research and publications will be forthcoming in the form of subsidies, gifts, or legacies. French has been adopted as the official language of the Union for correspondence and administrative documents, but publications of a scientific character may be in any language.

The organization of the International Union is thus seen to be exceedingly simple; its method of operation is hardly less so. The object of the Union is chiefly to organize international cooperation for undertakings in research or publication which require, or at least will benefit from the collaboration of two or more countries. Such undertakings may be proposed by the officers of the Union acting collectively as a *bureau*, by one of the national delegations, or by any of the learned bodies affiliated with the Union. All proposals must clearly define the subject of the undertaking, its purpose and scope, must explain the plan or method in accordance with which it is to be carried on, must contain an estimate of the expense, and must indicate the extent of the collaboration, either financial or scientific, that will be required for its execution. Such proposals are communicated to the learned bodies affiliated with the Union some months in advance of the session at which they are to be considered in order that there may be ample time to instruct delegates respecting them. An enterprise which is approved by the Union may be carried out under the direct supervision of a special committee appointed by the Union, or it may be assigned to one of the affiliated societies,

generally the one which proposed it. In the latter case the society thus charged with an undertaking has full control of it, subject to the approval of the Union, organizes the work, fixes the place or places where it is to be done, and selects the collaborators.

The first meeting of the Union, after its final organization, was held in Brussels in May, 1920, when the following officers were elected: president, Professor Henri Pirenne of the University of Ghent; vice-presidents, Monsieur Théophile Homolle, director of the National Library in Paris, and Sir Frederic Kenyon, president of the British Academy; secretary, Senator Lanciani of the Academy of the Lincei in Rome; assistant-secretaries, Professor Heiberg of the Danish Academy of Sciences, and Dr. Louis H. Gray of the American Embassy in Paris. Two member countries, Portugal and Serbia, were added to those already mentioned, thus bringing to sixteen the total number of countries which now belong to the Union.

2. THE AMERICAN COUNCIL OF LEARNED SOCIETIES

The organization of the International Union of Academies at once brought forward the problem of organizing American scholarship for an effective participation in the activities of the new group. The desirability of such participation was hardly questioned; too many scholars, indeed, an active support of the new movement appeared as a duty imposed by the conditions of the times. The United States had emerged from the war with burdens insignificant as compared with those of its allies and with a vast increase in material wealth. American scholars had no inclination to do less than their full share in the advancement of learning, but there is in the United

States no national academy, like the British Academy, for example, which is authoritatively representative of the humanistic studies and which would consider itself as having a mandate to speak for American scholarship. Instead there are a dozen or more large societies, each of which is devoted to a single field of learning. These semi-popular societies, membership in most of which is open to all, might at first sight appear hardly to deserve the appellation of "learned"; a closer view, however, shows their activities to be scholarly as to purpose and scientific as to method, and to be directed by those of their members who are recognized as the most expert and the best qualified in their respective branches. Open membership does not, therefore, cheapen the societies nor debase their product, but rather enables them to exert a wider educational influence than might be possible if their membership were confined to the professional element.

Unlike the societies devoted to the pure and applied sciences, the humanistic societies have never been united by any bonds closer than those of mutual amity. Certain groups of them, especially those devoted to history, economics, and political science, have frequently held joint meetings, and have sometimes appointed joint committees for certain purposes, but there has never been an attempt to form a union or confederation of any sort. If, therefore, American scholars were to participate as a unit in the new International Union it was necessary to do one of two things: either to create a new body, preferably a national academy which, being composed of scholars of the highest reputation, would be recognized as authoritatively representing humanistic learning, or to organize a federation of the existing societies. 'For

many reasons the second course seemed wiser and more practicable. The creation of an academy would be attended by many difficulties, not the least of which would be the selection of the charter members. The organization of a federation could easily be accomplished by bringing together in a group, presided over by some sort of a representative body, the dozen or more societies already existing and successfully exploiting their respective fields.

The initiative in effecting such an organization was taken by the two societies which had been represented in the Paris conference in May, the American Academy of Arts and Sciences and the American Historical Association. The presidents and secretaries of these two bodies issued an invitation to eleven other societies to be represented in a conference to be held in Boston on September 19. When the conference met it was composed of twenty delegates representing the following societies:

American Philosophical Society
American Academy of Arts and Sciences
American Antiquarian Society
American Oriental Society
American Philological Association
Archaeological Institute of America
Modern Language Association of America
American Historical Association
American Economic Association
American Philosophical Association

Three other societies had been invited to send delegates but the invitations failed to reach them in time for appropriate action: the American Political Science Association, the American Sociological Society, and the American Society of International Law. Of the societies included in the conference the first three,

which are also the oldest, are of a different type from that just described. All three are societies of closed membership and two of them, the Philosophical Society and the Academy, are devoted to science as well as to the humanities. They more nearly resemble the older type of European academy with its different departments or sections; philosophy, philology, and history are the humanistic studies most cultivated by their members. The Antiquarian Society is, as its name implies, mainly interested in American History. The other societies are true to type and their names are descriptive of their respective interests. The Philological Association lays principal emphasis on classical philology, leaving the other divisions of its field to the Oriental Society and the Modern Language Association.

The conference thus constituted voted unanimously that in its opinion American learned societies should participate as a group in the International Union of Academies. In order to constitute such a group the conference recommended the creation of an inter-society body to be known as the "American Council of Learned Societies," and proceeded to draw up a form of agreement establishing such a body, together with a constitution for its government when it should be organized.

This constitution, which has been ratified and is now in force, provides that the Council shall be composed of delegates of "the national learned societies of the United States which are devoted by scientific methods to the advancement of the humanistic studies." Each such society is represented by two delegates chosen for a term of four years and in such a manner as the society may determine. The duties

of the Council are to choose the representatives of the United States in the International Union of Academies, to prepare their instructions, and in general to serve as the principal medium of communication between the Union and the constituent societies. The Council is also authorized to take such measures on its own initiative as "may advance the general interests of the humanistic studies" and is particularly charged with maintaining and strengthening relations among the societies which are represented in it. The Council is required to make an annual report to the constituent societies setting forth in detail all its acts and all receipts and expenditures of money; instructions voted by a majority of the societies are binding upon it and it may be dissolved by vote of two-thirds of the societies. The organization of the Council is simple in the extreme; its officers are a chairman, a vice-chairman, and a secretary-treasurer, no two of whom may be from the same society, and these, with two other delegates, compose the Executive Committee. In order to defray the administrative expenses of the Council each constituent society is assessed an annual contribution of five cents per member, with a minimum contribution of twenty-five dollars for societies of less than five hundred members. The Council is required to meet at least once a year.

Of the thirteen societies named above, which were invited to be represented in the Boston conference, all but two have ratified the agreement and are now constituent members of the Council. Of the two which have not ratified, one, the American Society of International Law, has declined membership, having already many international affiliations, and the other, the American Philosophical Association, has post-

poned action until December, 1920. The Council has, therefore, been organized with eleven constituent societies whose aggregate membership is over thirteen thousand. Additional societies may be admitted to representation in the Council by a vote of three-fourths of all the delegates. The Boston conference in September took the responsibility of appointing American delegates to the October session of the International Union in Paris, and these delegates ratified, subject to confirmation by the Council when it should be formed, the final statutes of the Union. This action was confirmed by the Council when it met in New York in February, 1920, for the purpose of effecting an organization; at the same time delegates were appointed to represent the United States in the first Brussels session of the Union, which was held in May. Thus, through the organization of the Council, the American learned societies are enabled to take part in the deliberations of the International Union; how great a part they will be able to take in its activities must necessarily depend upon the resources which the Council may be able to develop.

3. THE PROGRAMME

What activities will be undertaken by the Union and by the Council? What programme will they set for themselves? It must be expected that, at least for the present, the role of each will be administrative rather than executive, for neither is possessed of the facilities or the revenues necessary to establish itself as a new agency of research. Their task must be rather to coordinate the work of existing agencies and to encourage and organize cooperative undertakings. Already a number of projects have been adopted by

the Union or laid before it and from them we may judge of the sort of enterprise likely to be sanctioned. The Royal Academy of Sciences of Amsterdam has proposed the publication of a complete edition of the letters and writings of Hugo Grotius, the "father of international law"; of particular interest to the United States is another proposal by the same body that there be organized a series of systematic researches and publications in the customary law of the Dutch East Indies, the Philippine Islands, and of those regions generally which go by the name of Indonesia. This plan includes the publication, with French or English translation, of ancient or modern documents, drawn up in any one of the Indonesian languages, which serve to illustrate the development and present state of living, unwritten law in those parts of the world. The results of such research would evidently have an important bearing upon many problems of colonial administration.

The two Italian Academies of the Lincei and of Turin have drafted a plan for continuing, under the direction of an international committee, the collections of Greek and Latin inscriptions which the Prussian Academy has been obliged to abandon, and which are indispensable for the history of the Greek and Roman world. American archaeologists, who have long maintained schools of classical studies in Athens and in Rome, would be in a position to take an active part in any such enterprise. Other proposals are for a catalogue of ancient vases, the paintings on which constitute one of the richest sources of our knowledge of Greek life, customs and beliefs; for an historical dictionary of Arabic, for a lexicon of Greek architectural terms, for a catalogue of manu-

scripts relating to alchemy, for a revision of Du Cange's *Glossarium* of mediaeval Latin, etc. Four of these projects were adopted by the Union at its meeting in Brussels in May: the corpus of ancient vases, the catalogue of manuscripts relating to alchemy, the revision of Du Cange, and the edition of Grotius.

Other proposals likely to be made in the near future, some of which have already been discussed by the American Council, are of more contemporary interest. Such for example are the compilation of a list, drawn up from the archives of the various foreign offices, of all ambassadors or other diplomatic representatives; another undertaking in the field of diplomatic history would be a collection of documents, likewise drawn from foreign office archives, relating to the Congress of Berlin.

A subject of which the Union has already taken cognizance has to do with historical and archaeological researches within the former territories of the Ottoman Empire. The favoritism, not to say corruption, which so often under the old régime marked the granting of permits for excavations was the cause of many misunderstandings between scholars of different countries and often resulted in an improper exploitation of archaeological finds. A special committee of the Peace Congress studied the problem and recommended measures, approved by the Union, for safeguarding the interests of archaeology and history and for according fair and equitable treatment to the scholars of all countries.

An enterprise in which American scholars are deeply interested and which they may before long propose to the Union, is the compilation of a current

bibliography of the humanistic studies. Hardly any project would be more generally useful; the present lack of such a bibliography makes it difficult for the scholar and impossible for the layman to keep informed with respect to the state of learning in the various fields, while to the librarian such an aid would be invaluable.

An especial care of the Union will be to encourage the holding of international congresses. The historical congresses held in Rome in 1903, in Berlin in 1908, and in London in 1913, are illustrations of the utility of such international gatherings; they demonstrate and at the same time go far to assure that solidarity which is one of the boasts of scholarship.

While organizing American participation in such international activities as those just described will be one of the important functions of the Council of Learned Societies, this body will also, it is hoped, be able to develop a domestic policy. Much can be done in the way of strengthening relations between the constituent societies and in fostering the humanistic studies in general. Joint meetings of societies devoted to closely related fields will doubtless be held more frequently than in the past, and it is not unlikely that periodical conferences of the executive officers of the societies belonging to the Council will be held for the discussion of common problems. Several enterprises which might advantageously be organized by the Council have been suggested, such for example as the preparation and editing of that long and much desired work, an encyclopedia of American biography. Another desideratum is a yearbook of learned and scientific societies and already the Council has commenced the publication

of a *Bulletin*, the first number of which appeared in July, 1920.

From these modest beginnings, modest that is from the point of view of execution rather than of design, much good may come. Whether or not any programme as ambitious as that which has been suggested can be entered upon must depend upon the financial support which the Union and the Council are able to command.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS

Nos. 1–141 (April, 1907, to August, 1919). Including papers by Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, George Trumbull Ladd, Elihu Root, Barrett Wendell, Charles E. Jefferson, Seth Low, John Bassett Moore, William James, Andrew Carnegie, Pope Pius X, Heinrich Lammasch, Norman Angell, Charles W. Eliot, Sir Oliver Lodge, Lord Haldane, Alfred H. Fried, James Bryce, and others; also a series of official documents dealing with the European War, the League of Nations, the Peace Conference, and with several of the political problems resulting from the War. A list of titles and authors will be sent on application.

142. Treaty of Peace with Germany. September, 1919.

143. Comments by the German Delegation on the Conditions of Peace. October, 1919.

144. Reply of the Allied and Associated Powers to the Observations of the German Delegation on the Conditions of Peace. November, 1919.

145. Agreements between the United States and France, and between England and France, June 28, 1919; Anglo-Persian Agreement, August 9, 1919. December, 1919.

146. International Labor Conventions and Recommendations. January, 1920.

147. Some Bolshevist Portraits. February, 1920.

148. Certain Aspects of the Bolshevist Movement in Russia. Part 1. March, 1920.

149. Certain Aspects of the Bolshevist Movement in Russia. Part 2. April, 1920.

150. German Secret War Documents. May, 1920.

151. Present Day Conditions in Europe by Henry P. Davison; Message of President Wilson to the Congress on the United States and the Armenian Mandate; Report of the American Military Mission to Armenia. June, 1920.

152. Documents concerning the Accession of Switzerland to the League of Nations; The United States and the League of Nations: Reservations of the United States Senate of November, 1919, and March, 1920. July, 1920.

153. The Treaty of Peace with Germany in the United States Senate, by George A. Finch. August, 1920.

154. The National Research Council, by Vernon Kellogg; The International Organization of Scientific Research, by George Ellery Hale; The International Union of Academies and the American Council of Learned Societies, by Waldo G. Leland. September, 1920.

Special Bulletins:

Yougoslavia, by M. I. Pupin; Declaration of Independence of the Mid-European Union, October 26, 1918; Declaration of Independence of the Czecho-Slovak Nation, October 18, 1918; Declaration of Corfu, July 20, 1917. January, 1919.

The League of Nations: Proposed Constitution of the League of Nations; speeches delivered before the Peace Conference by members of the Commission on the League of Nations; Addresses delivered by President Wilson in Boston, February 24, 1919, and in New York, March 4, 1919. March, 1919.

Criticisms of the Draft Plan for the League of Nations: William Howard Taft, Charles E. Hughes, Elihu Root. April, 1919.

Copies of the above, so far as they can be spared, will be sent to libraries and educational institutions for permanent preservation postpaid upon receipt of a request addressed to the Secretary of the American Association for International Conciliation.

A charge of five cents will be made for copies sent to individuals. Regular subscription rate twenty-five cents for one year, or one dollar for five years.